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TITLE: Polysubstance use and misuse or abuse of prescription opioid analgesics: A multi-level analysis of international data

AUTHORS: Katherine I. Morley^{a,b*}, Jason Ferris^c, Adam R. Winstock^{d,e}, Michael T. Lynskey^a

^a National Addictions Centre, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology & Neuroscience, King's College London, London, United Kingdom.

^b Centre for Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Melbourne School of Population and Global Health, The University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Australia.

^c Institute for Social Science Research, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.

^d South London and Maudsley NHS Trust/King's College London, London, United Kingdom.

^e Global Drug Survey, London, United Kingdom.

* Corresponding Author:

National Addictions Centre, Institute of Psychiatry Psychology & Neuroscience, King's College London

4 Windsor Walk, London, SE5 8BB, United Kingdom

Email: katherine.morley@kcl.ac.uk, Telephone: +44 (0)20 7848 0664

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INTRODUCTION

Over the last decade, increasing mortality and morbidity associated with opioid analgesics has led to concerns about misuse and abuse of these drugs, even when obtained via prescription. This has been most pronounced in the United States of America (USA) where dispensed prescriptions increased from 47 million in 2006 to 60 million in 2013 [11]. This was accompanied by increases in opioid-related overdose mortality and admission for treatment [22]. Policies designed to counter these trends have had some effect, with diversion, abuse, and attributable mortality reaching a plateau from 2011 [11]. However, concerns have been raised that misuse and abuse of opioid analgesics is not limited to those who access them via non-clinical routes, and has not been adequately addressed in individuals using them for legitimate medical needs [6,22,40].

A recent review of opioid analgesic use in chronic pain patients identified substantial levels of problematic use [37]. Three types of problematic use were defined using statements from the Initiative on Methods, Measurement, and Pain Assessment in Clinical Trials and Analgesic, Anesthetic, and Addiction Clinical Trials, Translations, Innovations, Opportunities, and Networks [27,34]:

- *Misuse*: use contrary to the directed pattern of use, regardless of harm or adverse effects;
- *Abuse*: intentional use for a nonmedical purpose;
- *Addiction*: pattern of continued use with experience of, or demonstrated potential for, harm.

The authors estimated misuse was documented in 21-29% of patients, and addiction in 8-12%. Abuse could not be estimated due to insufficient data, but in the one suitable study

identified 8% of patients met abuse criteria. However, the authors noted that most studies reviewed were from the USA, and raised the question of whether problematic opioid analgesic use is “a problem that is somehow uniquely relevant to the US”.

There is evidence of problematic opioid analgesic use outside the USA, particularly in Europe and Australia. Although heroin is the most frequently abused opioid in Europe, demand for treatment relating to problematic use of other opioids is increasing [13]. A 2012 review identified opioid analgesics as one of the most commonly misused medicines in Europe, although the authors also noted the limited available data [9]. A more recent study estimated the prevalence of prescription opioid abuse as 13.7 per 10,000 individuals for France, 11.0 per 10,000 for Germany, and 10.7 per 10,000 for the United Kingdom (UK), but less than 1 per 10,000 individuals for Spain and Italy [33]. Similar statistics are unavailable for Australia, but a substantial increase in opioid analgesic prescriptions and opioid-related hospitalisations and deaths has occurred over the past decade, suggesting increasing levels of misuse and abuse [8].

Using Global Drug Survey data from the USA, UK, France, Germany, and Australia we investigated whether misuse and abuse of opioid analgesics obtained via prescription varied between countries. As polysubstance use involving illicit drugs and/or benzodiazepines is among the few consistent, strong predictors of problematic opioid analgesic use [9,32,36], we also investigated whether the association between this predictor and misuse or abuse varied between countries.

METHODS

Sample

Data were drawn from the 2015 Global Drug Survey (GDS), an annual online anonymous cross-sectional survey of licit and illicit drug use which ran from November 9th 2014 to January 3rd 2015 (www.globaldrugsurvey.com). The GDS includes a core set of drug history and sociodemographic variables, with additional modules on specialist topics included or excluded each year. Starting with a universal drug screen, the web-based survey then adjusts to ensure only sections relevant to each persons' recent drug use experience are displayed. Further information on the range of topics covered is available at www.globaldrugsurvey.com/gds-surveys/survey-composition/. For the analyses presented, data were drawn from a specialist module on prescription drugs, and the sociodemographic and universal drug screen sections.

All participants confirmed they were aged ≥ 16 years and consented to analysis of the information they provided. Ethical approval was received from The Psychiatry, Nursing and Midwives Ethics subcommittee at Kings College, London. The survey was translated into 10 languages and promoted in partnership with a range of media outlets including *The Guardian*, *Zeit Online*, *la Repubblica*, and Fairfax Media, and also distributed through Facebook, Twitter, social news website Reddit and drug discussion forums. There are no exclusion criteria except being under the age of 16 years and thus it was open to any individual who wished to complete it. The 2015 GDS was available in English, Danish, Flemish, French, German, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, and Slovenian and distributed via media partners in Australia, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain,

Switzerland, the UK, and the USA. However, as this was an online survey and it was advertised via social media, responses were also received from individuals residing in other countries. GDS therefore recruits a non-probability sample and is not designed to determine the prevalence of drug behaviours in the general population. GDS is, however, an efficient way of gaining in-depth understanding of stigmatized behaviors that may not be well captured in more representative surveys. Other publications provide further details on the utility, design, and limitations of the Global Drug Survey [4,7,26,39].

In total, the 2015 GDS received responses from over 100,000 participants from 175 countries, with 31 countries contributing 100 or more responses. Our original intention was to analyse data from the USA, Australia, and the five European countries examined by Shei *et al.* [33] (UK, France, Germany, Spain, and Italy). However, we could only include countries with enough overall participants to ensure a sufficient sample of prescription opioid users for the multi-level analyses (described below). Unfortunately, less than 1,000 responses were received from participants resident in Italy and Spain so we could not include these countries in the analyses. Thus the analysis sample was defined as GDS on participants from Australia, France, Germany, the UK and the USA who had used prescription codeine, hydrocodone, oxycontin, or tramadol in the past 12 months. The relative frequency of prescribing of these opioid analgesics differs between countries: codeine and tramadol are more commonly prescribed in the UK, France, and Germany [1,16,31] whereas oxycodone and hydrocodone are more commonly prescribed in the USA [38]. In Australia, codeine is prescribed most frequently, followed by tramadol and oxycodone which are prescribed at similar frequencies [19].

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Measures

Demographic covariates

Information was collected on gender, age, and highest educational qualification (high school, college diploma, undergraduate, postgraduate).

Drug use

Participants were asked "Have you used any of the following drugs in the last year?" and presented with a list of illicit drugs and licit drugs (including opioid analgesics and benzodiazepines). The following questions were revealed dynamically for each opioid analgesic for which they endorsed past-year use.

Methods of access

Participants were asked "Which of the following methods have you used to obtain it [specific medication]?" with the following options: Prescribed to you; Given to you by a friend; Bought by you from a dealer; Bought by you on the internet (multiple selections possible).

Ease of access to a prescription

Participants were asked "How easy would it be for you get it [drug] prescribed to you within the next 7 days?" selecting one option from: Very easy; Easy; Possible; Difficult; Very difficult. Responses were collapsed into a binary variable indicating "Very easy" or "Easy" responses versus other responses.

125

126 *Opioid analgesic misuse and abuse*

127 Misuse and abuse were defined following Vowles *et al.* [37]. In our data, misuse was coded
128 if participants endorsed one or more of the following responses to “If it [drug] was prescribed
129 to you in the last 12 months have you found yourself...”:

- 130 • taking more than was prescribed;
- 131 • trying to get hold of extra medication;
- 132 • being unable cut down or stop using it;
- 133 • feeling physically and/or emotionally unwell when using less or stopping use;
- 134 • ever overdosed.

135 Abuse was coded if participants endorsed one or more of the following responses to the same
136 question:

- 137 • mixing it with other drugs to enhance the drug effect;
- 138 • mixing it with alcohol to enhance the drug effect.

139 Abuse was also coded if participants endorsed the option “getting high” when responding to
140 the question “In the last year have you taken this medication to achieve these desirable
141 objectives...”.

142 Misuse and abuse variables were derived separately for each opioid analgesic, but as some
143 participants endorsed the use of more than one opioid analgesic, these data were also
144 combined to create two variables indicating misuse of at least one opioid analgesic and abuse
145 of at least one opioid analgesic.

146

147 *Polysubstance use*

148 Using the screening question “Have you used any of the following drugs in the past year?”,
149 we identified participants who endorsed use of benzodiazepines (with or without a

prescription) or the following illicit drugs: cannabis (hydroponic, herbal, resin, or oil), ecstasy (pills or powder), cocaine, crack, amphetamine, methamphetamine, mephedrone, or heroin. For descriptive purposes, we used these data to create a categorical variable indicating the following mutually exclusive patterns of substance use: no use of illicit drugs or benzodiazepines in the past year; use of one or more illicit drugs only; use of benzodiazepines only; use of one or more illicit drugs *and* benzodiazepines (combined use). For analytical purposes we created two binary variables, one indicating use of illicit drugs in the past year and other indicating use of benzodiazepines in the past year.

Statistical analysis

Sample characteristics were summarised using standard descriptive statistics. Multivariable analyses were conducted using multi-level (i.e. mixed effects) binary logistic regression models to allow for clustering of participants within countries, and estimation of the variability in misuse and abuse due to country of residence. These models were used to investigate the association between polysubstance use and (i) misuse of at least one prescription opioid analgesic; (ii) abuse of at least one prescription opioid analgesic. Age, gender, education level, and employment status were included as covariates.

Models included a random country-level intercept to allow for between-country variation in risk of opioid analgesic misuse and abuse. The effect of country of residence was quantified using the intraclass correlation and median odds ratio [24]. Illicit drug use and benzodiazepine use were initially modelled as fixed effects with an interaction term; random slope models were then fitted to evaluate whether the associations between misuse/abuse and illicit drug use and benzodiazepine use varied by country of residence. The models provide odds ratio (OR) estimates for the association between polysubstance use and misuse or abuse,

holding country of residence constant [15,17]. The covariates age, gender, education level, and employment were included as fixed effects. Models were fitted via maximum likelihood with difference in model fit evaluated using likelihood ratio chi-squared tests. As the alternative hypotheses regarding variances are technically one-sided, halving the p-value for these tests has been suggested [35]; we report the standard p-values but consider this modification when interpreting results. Analyses were conducted in R version 3.3.1 (Bug in Your Hair) [29] using the lme4 package for multi-level models, with 95% confidence intervals (CI) for the final model parameter estimates obtained using bootstrapping with 4000 replicates per model [5].

RESULTS

Sample description

The analysis sample consisted of 5,670 participants who had used codeine, hydrocodone, oxycontin, or tramadol in the past 12 months and had obtained it via a prescription (see Table 1). Overall, 45.8% of the sample were female with an average age of 33.2 years (standard deviation 13.8 years). Participants were relatively evenly distributed across the education categories: 24.9% reported highschool as their highest qualification, 22.2% reported a college diploma, 28.7% reported an undergraduate degree, and 22.6% reported a postgraduate degree. Almost two thirds (64.1%) were employed. The analysis sample differs from the total sample of GDS participants from the five countries in that the full sample has a lower percentage of women (37%), lower average age (30.0 years), fewer participants with a postgraduate qualification (14.9%), and a lower level of employment (60.7%).

The analysis sample included similar numbers of participants from each of the five countries, although there were slightly fewer from Germany. Use of particular opioid analgesics differed by country of residence, as expected given regional differences in prescribing practices. Codeine was the most frequently used drug by participants resident in Australia (91.2%), France (90.6%), Germany (77.7%), and the United Kingdom (92.8%), while hydrocodone was most commonly used by US participants (63.9%). Overall, 45.4% of the sample had not used benzodiazepines or illicit drugs in the past year. Past-year illicit drug use was reported by a further 42.3%, with 4.4% having used only benzodiazepines in the past year, and 7.9% endorsing use of both benzodiazepines and illicit drugs. Of those who had used illicit drugs in the past year more than half (57.0%) had only used cannabis, with ecstasy (12.2%) and cocaine (10.0%) the next most frequently used single drugs. Only 2% (N=58) of illicit drug users had used heroin in the past year. Of those who had used benzodiazepines in the past year, 61.7% reported obtaining them via prescription.

Access to opioid analgesics

Obtaining a prescription for these opioid analgesics within seven days was perceived as being easier for codeine (39.4% reported it would be “very easy” or “easy”) and tramadol (46.4%), compared to hydrocodone (18.4%) and oxycontin (25.1%). Obtaining any of these opioid analgesics *without* a prescription, via a dealer or the internet, was very uncommon (see Figure 1). Only about 1% of codeine and tramadol users reported obtaining these drugs via a dealer or the internet. For hydrocodone and oxycontin the percentage of participants who also reported obtaining the drug from a dealer was higher (7.0% and 5.7% respectively), but the percentage buying these drugs via the internet was less than 1%. Being given these drugs by friends was a more common route for obtaining them without a prescription (reported by 6.7% to 23.2% of participants, depending on drug).

Level of misuse and abuse of opioid analgesics

Between 8% and 22% of participants who had not used any illicit drugs or benzodiazepines in the past year reported misuse or abuse of codeine, hydrocodone, oxycontin, or tramadol (see Table 2). Overall, compared to those who had not used any other substances, approximately twice as many participants who had used illicit drugs only, or benzodiazepines only, reported misuse of any opioid analgesic (26.8% and 33.5% respectively compared to 14.7%). Three times as many participants who engaged in polysubstance use reported misuse (45.7%). Participants who only used illicit drugs, or only used benzodiazepines, were approximately three times as likely to report abuse of opioid analgesics compared to those who used no other substances (23.9% and 27.8% respectively compared to 8.8%). Almost five times as many participants who endorsed polysubstance use reported abuse of opioid analgesics (43.7%). The percentage of participants reporting misuse and abuse differed by country of residence; Australian participants were the least likely to report misuse and abuse (17.0% and 12.5% respectively), while participants from the USA were most likely (28.2% and 27.7% respectively). Similar percentages of participants from France and the UK reported misuse (21.5% and 21.0% respectively) and abuse (15.6% and 16.6% respectively). German participants reported a level of misuse similar to participants from the USA (27.5%), but were less likely to report abuse (20%).

Association between polysubstance use and misuse/abuse of prescription opioid medications

We first fitted “empty” multi-level models to investigate how much variability in misuse and abuse of opioid analgesics could be explained by participant country of residence [25]. For

both models, likelihood ratio tests comparing fixed effects and random intercept models indicated that there was significance variance explained by the between-country effect on misuse ($\chi^2_1=34.98$, $p < 0.0001$) and abuse ($\chi^2_1=73.53$, $p < 0.0001$). However, the intraclass correlations and median odds ratios for both models were small. The percentage of variance in misuse explained by country of residence was only 1.5% and the median odds ratio was 1.12, while the percentage of variance in abuse explained was 2.8% and the median odds ratio was 1.34.

For the opioid analgesic misuse model, allowing the effects of illicit drug use and benzodiazepine use to vary by country of residence did not significantly improve model fit ($\chi^2_5=8.53$, $p = 0.13$) and they were therefore included as fixed effects in the full multivariable model. Based on the full multivariable model (see Table 3), use of both illicit drugs and benzodiazepines was associated with over four-fold greater odds of opioid analgesic misuse compared to not using any additional substances (OR 4.36, 95% CI 3.29 – 5.93), while use of benzodiazepines only was associated with three-fold greater odds (OR 3.37, 95% CI 2.25 – 5.25). However, both were more strongly associated with misuse than use of illicit drugs only (OR 1.79, 95% CI 1.41 – 2.37).

Allowing the effects of illicit drug use and benzodiazepine use to vary by country of residence did significantly improve the fit of the model for opioid analgesic abuse ($\chi^2_5=13.26$, $p = 0.02$). The effect of illicit drug use on abuse varied considerably more between country of residence than the effect of benzodiazepine use (see Table 3). Covariance with the intercept was negative for both illicit drug use and benzodiazepine use, suggesting the association of polysubstance use with abuse is weaker in countries with higher levels of abuse. The fixed effects estimates for the relationship between polysubstance use and opioid

analgesic abuse were stronger than those for misuse, but displayed the same pattern. The odds of opioid analgesic abuse were highest for participants using both illicit drugs and benzodiazepines compared to those not using any additional substances (OR 6.49, 95% CI 4.0 – 10.48), over four-fold higher for those using benzodiazepines only (OR 4.79, 95% CI 2.70 – 8.95), and over two-fold higher for those using only illicit drugs (OR 2.46, 95% CI 1.75 – 3.60).

DISCUSSION

In this sample of individuals from the USA, UK, France, Germany, and Australia who had used opioid medications obtained via prescription in the past year, 1 in 4 individuals reported misuse of any opioid analgesics, and approximately 1 in 5 individuals reported abuse. Although these data come from a non-probability sample, this level of opioid medication misuse is similar to that obtained from a recent systematic review of misuse, abuse, and addiction in chronic pain patients [37], and represents one of the few available estimates of level of abuse of these drugs. Misuse and abuse differed between those who had and had not used illicit drugs and/or benzodiazepines in the past year; approximately 1 in 7 non-users reported misuse and 1 in 11 reported abuse, compared to approximately 1 in 3 users reporting misuse or abuse.

The multi-level models fitted indicated that country of residence only accounted for a small proportion of the variance in opioid analgesic misuse and abuse. Holding the effect of country of residence constant and adjusting for sociodemographic factors, combined use of illicit drugs and benzodiazepines was associated with four-fold greater odds of opioid analgesic misuse and six-fold greater odds of abuse compared to not using either drug. There

were no significant between-country differences in the effect of either illicit drug use or benzodiazepine use on misuse. However, the association between both types of polysubstance use and opioid analgesic abuse varied by country of residence, with this being more pronounced for illicit drug use. Thus, although these results provide limited support for the idea that misuse and abuse of these opioid analgesics is a phenomenon specific to the USA, we did find evidence that the relationship between some risk factors and opioid analgesic abuse may differ between countries.

The importance of benzodiazepine use in the context of problematic use of opioid analgesics is perhaps unsurprising given that the combined use of these drugs is well documented [21] and benzodiazepine use is a risk factor for opioid misuse [9] and overdose [20,41]. As those using both opioids and benzodiazepines are at increased risk of fatal overdose, this finding highlights the need for clinicians to be vigilant in identifying risk behaviours in those in receipt of both medication classes. Despite most clinical guidelines cautioning against concomitant prescription, there may be genuine indications such as managing co-existent anxiety or augmenting analgesic effects [18]. In our sample of prescription opioid users, just over 60% of benzodiazepine users reported also obtaining this drug via a prescription. However, prescription opioids and benzodiazepines are two of the drugs most commonly obtained via “doctor shopping” [20,23], so it is possible that in many cases a prescription for one drug was obtained without the clinician knowing the patient already held a prescription for the other. Regional differences in family doctor registration and prescription drug monitoring programmes, which can help prevent doctor shopping, could account for some of the between-country variation we observed in the association between polysubstance use and prescription opioid abuse [2].

324 The interplay between illicit drugs, benzodiazepines, and opioid analgesics is less well
325 characterised. As only 2% of those who had used illicit drugs in the past year were heroin
326 users it is unlikely that the results were driven by use of opioid analgesics as a substitute for
327 heroin. For 57% of participants using both illicit drugs and opioid analgesics, cannabis was
328 the only illicit drug they had used in the past year. Cannabis use has been identified as a risk
329 factor for opioid analgesic misuse in chronic pain patients [30], and previous research
330 identified a pattern of polysubstance use involving cannabis and both opioid analgesics and
331 benzodiazepines which was associated with increased risk of mental illness, another risk
332 factor for opioid misuse and abuse [10,12,26,32]. However, efforts to develop risk prediction
333 models for problematic opioid analgesic use have generally grouped all substance use
334 disorders together [10,12]. More research is needed to investigate the interaction between
335 different illicit drugs and benzodiazepines to better understand how use of these drugs
336 increases risk of problematic opioid analgesic use.

337

338 One limitation of these results is that we used data on past year drug use, which is not
339 necessarily the same as simultaneous use within a short time frame (e.g. 24 hours), although
340 Quek *et al.* [28] found that most people reporting use of multiple drugs in the past year also
341 reported simultaneous use of those drugs. The other main limitation is that these data were
342 collected via an anonymous online survey using a non-probability sampling strategy. It is not
343 possible to estimate response rates for this type of sampling strategy and it cannot be
344 considered to provide a representative sample of individuals from the countries included, so
345 the results should not be generalised to the broader populations from which they are drawn.
346 Participants in this type of study are likely to be younger, male, urban-dwelling, endorse use
347 of illicit drugs, and have completed more years of formal education than participants from a
348 representative sample [3]. However, although the recruitment strategy may not provide a

representative sample, the fact that it was anonymous and did not involve a participant's clinical care provider may mean that people were more likely to disclose both misuse and abuse of opioid analgesics, and use of illicit drugs. Additionally, this data set provided a large sample of individuals who had obtained opioid analgesics via a prescription across several countries. Given the noted scarcity of data on problematic use of opioid analgesics from outside the USA [9,33,37], these data are useful for exploring this phenomenon and generating new research questions. Regardless, the findings presented here should be investigated further in representative samples from the USA, UK, France, Germany, and Australia.

In conclusion, levels of opioid analgesic misuse and abuse appear to be higher in those who engage in polysubstance use involving illicit drugs and/or benzodiazepines, but there are substantial numbers of individuals who are not polysubstance users and engage in misuse and/or abuse. Policies and interventions have been developed on the assumption that there are two distinct populations of people, one that uses only medication prescribed to them and are compliant with dosing instructions, and another group who obtain prescription opioids via non-clinical routes, use other licit and/or illicit drugs, and engage in misuse and abuse. This distinction does not accurately reflect the reality of prescription opioid use, and highlights the importance of universal approaches to patient education, prescription and patient monitoring. While doctors remain the major source for these drugs, they will need to be targeted and engaged as the pivotal sites for change. Differences between the USA and other developed countries in relation to healthcare regulatory systems, patient expectations, and direct-to-consumer advertising have contributed to the substantially greater magnitude of problematic opioid analgesic use in the USA [2,14,38]. However, the issue of misuse and

373 abuse amongst those who are prescribed opioid analgesics appears to be a problem that
374 warrants attention on an international scale.

375

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377

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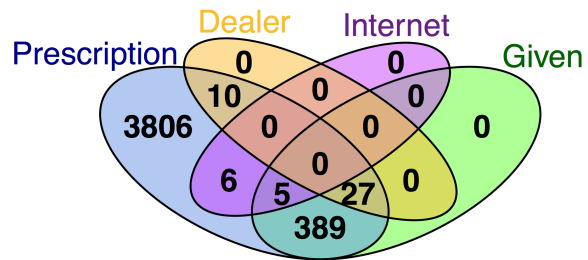
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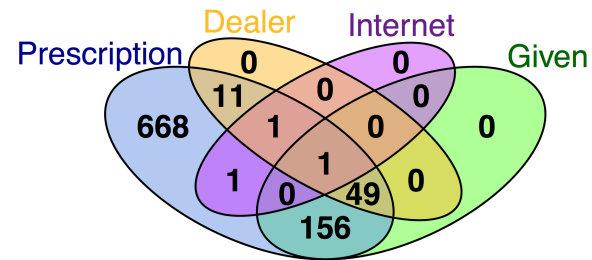
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Figure 1: Venn diagrams showing sources for obtaining (a) codeine, (b) hydrocodone, (c) oxycontin, (d) tramadol. Given numbers indicate that participants obtained prescription opioid analgesics from family and/or friends.

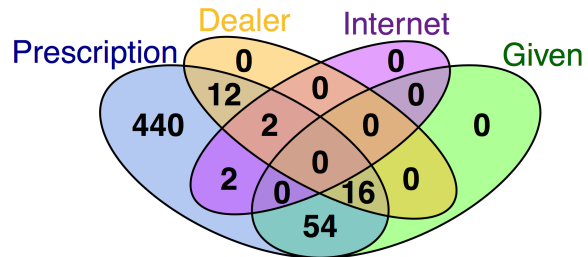
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

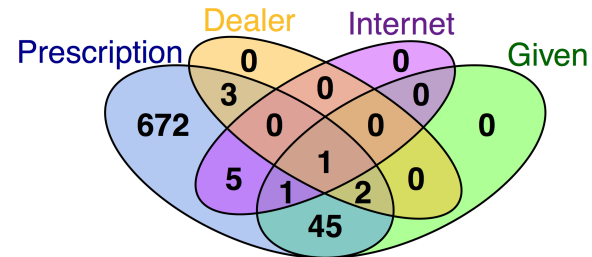


Table 1: Socio-demographic characteristics and patterns of drug use of analysis sample

Variable	Categories	Total (N = 5670)		Australia (N = 1013)		France (N = 1258)		Germany (N = 866)		United Kingdom (N = 1199)		United States (N = 1334)	
		N/mean	%/S.D.	N/mean	%/S.D.	N/mean	%/S.D.	N/mean	%/S.D.	N/mean	%/S.D.	N/mean	%/S.D.
Sex	Female	2598	45.8	459	45.3	597	47.5	354	40.9	486	40.5	702	52.6
	Male	3072	54.2	554	54.7	661	52.5	512	59.1	713	59.5	632	47.4
Age	Mean	33.2	13.8	39.1	14.7	29.1	10.2	32.2	12.8	34.0	13.0	32.6	15.8
Education	Highschool	1410	24.9	293	28.9	181	14.4	242	27.9	225	18.8	469	35.2
	College diploma	1256	22.2	145	14.3	315	25.0	276	31.9	279	23.3	241	18.1
	Undergraduate	1626	28.7	291	28.7	234	18.6	256	29.6	421	35.1	424	31.8
	Postgraduate	1280	22.6	271	26.8	511	40.6	82	9.5	256	21.4	160	12.0
Employment	Missing	98	1.7	13	1.3	17	1.4	10	1.2	18	1.5	40	3.0
	Yes	3635	64.1	722	71.3	728	57.9	545	62.9	791	66.0	849	63.6
	No	1993	35.1	281	27.7	518	41.2	314	36.3	402	33.5	478	35.8
	Missing	42	0.7	10	1.0	12	1.0	7	0.8	6	0.5	7	0.5
Opioid analgesic	Codeine	4243	74.8	924	91.2	1140	90.6	673	77.7	1113	92.8	393	29.5
	Hydrocodone	887	15.6	8	0.8	5	0.4	8	0.9	14	1.2	852	63.9
	Oxycontin	526	9.3	152	15.0	6	0.5	55	6.4	11	0.9	302	22.6
	Tramadol	729	12.9	82	8.1	203	16.1	168	19.4	166	13.8	110	8.2
Polysubstance use	None	2575	45.4	576	56.9	448	35.6	519	59.9	595	49.6	437	32.8
	Illicit only	2398	42.3	272	26.9	704	56.0	285	32.9	504	42.0	633	47.5
	Benzodiazepine only	248	4.4	82	8.1	43	3.4	23	2.7	30	2.5	70	5.2
	Combined	449	7.9	83	8.2	63	5.0	39	4.5	70	5.8	194	14.5

Table 2: Levels of opioid analgesic misuse and abuse by polysubstance use. Percentages are shown for each opioid analgesic and for misuse or abuse of at least one.

Variable	Opioid analgesic	Total		No substance use		Illicit only		Benzodiazepines only		Combined	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Misuse	Codeine	838	19.8	265	12.9	409	23.3	54	32.0	110	41.7
	Hydrocodone	253	28.5	48	17.1	122	29.5	20	38.5	63	44.4
	Oxycontin	148	28.1	29	14.1	67	32.2	16	43.2	36	48.0
	Tramadol	239	32.8	65	22.6	121	39.8	12	20.7	41	51.9
	Any	1308	23.1	378	14.7	642	26.8	83	33.5	205	45.7
Abuse	Codeine	641	15.1	159	7.7	335	19.1	46	27.2	101	38.3
	Hydrocodone	249	28.1	24	8.6	135	32.7	16	30.8	74	52.1
	Oxycontin	132	25.1	21	10.2	65	31.3	13	35.1	33	44.0
	Tramadol	180	24.7	40	13.9	98	32.2	10	17.2	32	40.5
	Any	1064	18.8	226	8.8	573	23.9	69	27.8	196	43.7

Table 3: Estimates from multi-level models of associations between opioid analgesic misuse and abuse, polysubstance use, and sociodemographic characteristics. 95% confidence intervals (C.I.) were obtained via bootstrapping.

Variable	Value	Misuse			Abuse		
		Beta	95% C.I.	P	Beta	95% C.I.	P
<i>Fixed effects</i>							
Illicit drug use	No	Ref.			Ref.		
	Yes	0.58	0.35 to 0.87	<0.0001	0.90	0.57 to 1.29	<0.0001
Benzodiazepine use	No	Ref.			Ref.		
	Yes	1.22	0.81 to 1.66	<0.0001	1.57	1 to 2.2	<0.0001
Illicit x benzodiazepine interaction		-0.33	-0.96 to 0.31	0.08	-0.59	-1.6 to 0.3	0.004
Age		-0.33	-0.45 to -0.22	<0.0001	-0.47	-0.63 to -0.32	<0.0001
Sex	Female	Ref.			Ref.		
	Male	0.31	-0.07 to 0.72	<0.0001	0.59	0.06 to 1.12	<0.0001
Education	Highschool	Ref.			Ref.		
	College diploma	-0.20	-0.49 to 0.14	<0.001	-0.21	-0.45 to 0.01	0.04
	Undergraduate degree	-0.33	-0.57 to -0.05	<0.001	-0.31	-0.6 to -0.09	0.002
	Postgraduate degree	-0.40	-0.7 to -0.1	<0.001	-0.47	-0.88 to -0.14	<0.001
Employment	No	Ref.			Ref.		
	Yes	-0.21	-0.39 to -0.06	0.002	-0.27	-0.57 to -0.03	<0.001
<i>Random effects</i>							
Intercept variance		0.03	0 to 0.08		0.03	0.01 to 0.19	
Illicit drug variance		N/A			0.14	0.01 to 0.35	
Benzodiazepines variance		N/A			0.004	0.01 to 0.16	
Intercept - illicit covariance		N/A			-0.02	-0.17 to 0.05	
Intercept - benzodiazepines covariance		N/A			-0.01	-0.11 to 0.04	
Illicit - benzodiazepines covariance		N/A			-0.01	-0.12 to 0.08	